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LETTERS FROM A TEACHER TO HER YOUNG FEMALE FRIEND, JUST ABOUT COMMENCING TO KEEP SCHOOL.

No. XIII.

My dear L——: Interlocking with the sources of the Missouri, on the high table land of the Rocky Mountains, the northern head waters of the Columbia River, which flows west into the Pacific, were discovered by Lewis and Clark, after a long and almost hopeless search. All the explored parts of Oregon territory are drained by the numerous branches of this great river. Clark's joins the Columbia after a course of 500 miles. The main southern branch interlocks with the sources of the Arkansas, Platte, and Yellow Stone, and joins the Columbia, after a direct course of 800 miles, and is the largest branch, unless future discoveries determine the Multnomah to be so. The sources of the Multnomah are unknown, that region being yet a *terra incognita.* If the Lake Timpanagos proves to be its extreme south-eastern source, as is now conjectured, its length, in a direct course, will be more than 700 miles. The River of Oregon, including the four confluents, Columbia proper, Lewis and Clark's, and Multnomah, is 1500 miles in length. The surface of the basin falls from the Rocky Mountains, 3370 feet, to the level of the Pacific, and the rivers descend by numerous falls and cataracts. The tides penetrate 100 miles through the western mountains, which stretch south from opposite Vancouver's Island, through the peninsula of California. The action of the Pacific is chiefly confined to this portion of the coast, because the inclination of the more northern mountains to the north-west intercepts its influence in that superior region.

Mudie says, "The different branches of the Columbia flow in passages among the mountains, which, though very crooked and irregular, admit the action of the storms of the Pacific to the very centre of the mountains; and it will be perceived that the sources of the principal rivers which flow towards the Gulf of Mexico and the Arctic Sea, lie immediately opposite to those of the principal branches of the Columbia, and that they are at no great distance from each other; here, therefore, over an extent of at least one thousand miles from south-east to north-west, the Stony Mountains consist of a single chain; and, as the sources of the rivers,—as is almost invariably the case,—overlay each other, the action of the Pacific tends to the supply of water for the rivers of the central valley, both northward and southward, as well as for those which flow to that ocean itself." Murray

says, the storms are so violent, they tear up whole forests, and lay them low. Thus we see that the whole of this vast region of the United States is united by means of its river basins. It is difficult to conceive how vast this territory is. "It may be faintly conceived by the fact," says Darby, "that St. Louis, on the Mississippi, is not one third of the distance from Cape Hatteras to the mouth of the Columbia, and that the central point is 600 miles north-west from that city, in the valley of the Missouri. A line drawn from Cape Hatteras to the mouth of Columbia River would measure 2702 statute miles, and, by any practicable route, it is more than 3000 from the mouth of that river to Washington city."

"The Oregon basin, 440,000 square miles in extent, as far as it has been explored, is much broken by mountains, or occupied by naked plains. Some fine valleys, of small extent, lie between the chains, and the climate is much milder than in the same latitudes on the Atlantic coast. An isothermal line, or *line of equal heat*, drawn from the mouth of the Columbia, lat. 45° N., would incline rapidly to the south-east, and, in rising to the plateau of the Rocky Mountains, allowing that plateau 3870 feet of elevation, would reach 37° 50′ N., supposing 400 feet of elevation equal to a degree of latitude; then, waving from the summits of these mountains towards the Atlantic, it would in no place inflect as high as at its point of departure from the Pacific coast."

The Columbia River will therefore be more accessible in winter than the rivers of Canada, or even of the Atlantic coast generally, as far down as the Delaware. The moisture of winter on the western coasts also leaves the rivers open much higher than could be expected from any data afforded by the thermometer.

Having taken these cursory surveys of the three largest basins of North America, we will now look at the Atlantic slope. Its innumerable rivers fall partly from the mountain chains, but, below the mouth of the Hudson, descend chiefly from what are called the river hills.

The basin of the Hudson occupies a very remarkable glen, extending from the Atlantic Ocean, at New York harbor, in a direction a little east of north, into the St. Lawrence River. The Hudson occupies this chasm from Sandy Hook to Glenn's Falls; thence, for 21 or 22 miles, an intermediate table land, 140 feet above Hudson River, stretches to Lake Champlain, and, beyond this tract, Lake Champlain and Chambly or Sorel River reach to the St. Lawrence, descending only 52½ feet from the summit of the table land.

The Hudson River stretches a line of demarkation between two different kinds of valley that prevail in the Appalachian system;—one the intermediate spaces between the chains, the other the river vales. South-west from the Hudson, the rivers generally flow at right angles with the mountain range; but east of this river, they flow along the mountain valleys.

There is but one other pass known on the earth, bearing a specific resemblance to that of the Hudson and Lake Champlain. Scotland is divided into two unequal parts by a glen, which word signifies a narrow and deep vale between high and steep hills or mountains. Darby says, both these passes appear to have been formed by large masses of

solid matter having been impelled, with prodigious velocity, over the earth's surface. The lakes, as well as the rivers, obey the general direction in both. Both have been made navigable,—that of North America by the Champlain Canal, that of Scotland by the Caledonian.

The remote sources of the Hudson rise, on one side, in a mountainous, and yet marshy region, in the north-west of New York, and on the other, near Lake George. At Glenn's Falls, it descends 101 feet to the tide level, which is at the junction of the Hudson and Mohawk. Below tide water, it has the character of a bay, not one mile in mean width. At the Little Falls, there are appearances of a change of height in the ledge which crosses the river. The action of the water on the rocks is visible 30 or 40 feet above the present level of the stream. Darby considers these appearances incontestable proofs of not very ancient submersion; and thinks that, as the surface became more and more exposed by the wearing away of the barrier, extensive marshes must have existed between the periods of actual submersion and the desiccation of the soil.

The Erie Canal connects the basin of the Hudson with Lake Erie, through the valley of the Mohawk. The rivers that flow into the Hudson on the western side, descend from elevations of more than 2500 feet, and on the east, 1000, in 20 miles. The basin of the Hudson includes the minor ones of the Raritan and Passaic in New Jersey. The area of the whole is 14,500 square miles.

The basin of the Connecticut has an aggregate superficies of 9300 square miles. It flows, like the Hudson, through a mountain valley. Its sources interlock with those of the Androscoggin, Kennebec, Chaudière, and St. Francis Rivers. It receives the ocean tides above Hartford, and they flow over the exterior primitive rocks, but do not actually cross the primitive, as in the Hudson. It is much the deepest ascending navigation on the Atlantic slope east of the Hudson. The two basins are parallel. The elevation from which the Connecticut descends to Long Island Sound, is 1200 feet, and its tributaries on both sides are beautiful mountain streams, but humble in comparison with those of the Hudson. Extensive alluvial flats lie on each side of the Connecticut, and its scenery is very luxuriant.

"The mixture of lake and mountain scenery, characteristic of the north-eastern section of the United States, commences with the basin of the Merrimack. The vast assemblage of fresh water reservoirs, which separate the United States from Canada, is a bold frontispiece to an enormous volume which spreads over the rest of North America as far as it is known towards the north pole."—*Darby.*

South of the Hudson, the first important basin is that of the Delaware. The river rises in the Catskills, in the south-west of New York, and, after draining that section, flows south-west along the Kittatinny chain of mountains, then bursts through it by what is called the Delaware Water Gap, and, after running through a fine mountain valley between this and the Blue Ridge, receives the Lehigh, its first tributary, pierces the Blue Ridge, the south-east mountain, passes over the primitive ledge at Trenton, receives the Schuylkill from the north-west, and opens into Delaware Bay, after a course of 305 miles, over numerous rapids, but having no cataracts that interrupt the navigation to New York by both branches. The Lehigh falls from an elevation of

1700 feet, without a cataract worthy notice, through wild, picturesque, and often sublime scenery. The Schuylkill valley is less rugged and less rich than that of the Lehigh, but abounds in the same mineral production of anthracite coal. They form channels of intercommunication, having their sources near those of the Susquehannah valley. The two basins are connected by canals, one between the Schuylkill and Harrisburg, on the Susquehannah, the other between Newcastle and Elktown.

The basin of the Chesapeake, the last before we approach the tropical zone of the Atlantic slope, occupies, in the whole, an area of at least 65,000 square miles. The most extensive and important valley of this basin is that of the Susquehannah River. From its extent, and the western origin of its sources, it seems to form a natural chain of water communication between the Atlantic slope and the basins of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence. Seneca Lake reaches to within 20 miles of Tioga River, a branch of the Susquehannah. Its north-eastern sources are in the spurs of the Catskills, and the Juniata and the Alleghany are united by the Pennsylvanian Canal and a railroad over the intervening mountains. The Ohio, soon after the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela, is also united with the St. Lawrence and Mississippi basins by the Ohio Canal, stretching from Beaver River to Lake Erie, and south to the Ohio. The Susquehannah pours from an elevation of 1200 feet. It has torn its way through the rocky barriers of the mountain, in the lapse of ages; and its bed, like those of many other rivers of the Chesapeake, Delaware, and Hudson basins, yet retains much to be removed, before it can flow with tranquil or equal motion to the sea. It receives only small mountain streams, and no large tributaries till the west branch and Juniata join it in the middle of Pennsylvania. These break through the mountains in several places, but no cataracts impede their courses, which are navigable almost throughout. The most bold and the most tranquil scenery vary the Susquehannah valley. Exuberant fertility is followed on an almost perceptible line by the sterile, though wood-clad mountain.

The sources of the Potomac interlock with those of James River, among the mountains, almost as far south as the Peaks of Otter, the highest point in Virginia, (N. lat. 38½°,) and flow at first along the mountain valleys. The river then passes through several mountain barriers, the most remarkable of which is at Harper's Ferry. The Potomac, in its natural state, is the most navigable branch of the Chesapeake basin. Alexandria is the most distant point from the ocean to which ships of the line can be navigated in the United States, nearly 200 miles from the entrance of Chesapeake Bay. A canal is projected from Baltimore to Ohio by means of the Potomac and Monongahela Rivers.

The Rappahannock, York, and James Rivers rise also in the mountain valleys, and flow from heights of 1500 feet to the Chesapeake. This bay is the last on the Atlantic slope that affords deep water. Those further south are very shallow. From the Roanoke to the Pedee, the rivers rise in the mountain chains, but further south they are also peculiarly shallow, and in every instance deeper within than on their bars. Many of them receive the Atlantic tides through their whole course, and are cut by islands into innumerable channels.

The three basins of Altamaha, Ogeechee, and Savannah, covering an area of 27,300 square miles, comprise the greatest difference of climate and variety of vegetable production to be found within any equal superficies in the United States. The surface presents all the variety of scenery, from the monotonous oceanic border to the elevated, rugged, and variegated mountain ridges. At the higher sources of the Savannah is the first point, proceeding northward from the Gulf, where the fountains of the Atlantic slope and the Mississippi approach. The branches, of the Savannah and the Tennessee here interlock, at least 1,500 feet above the Atlantic level, in lat. N. 35°, W. lon. 6°.

M.

A TABLE, SHOWING THE AGGREGATE OF THE MASSACHUSETTS' SCHOOL RETURNS, FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1840-41.

Number of towns which have made returns,	304
Population, (*United States' Census*, 1840,)	734,258
Valuation, (*State*, 1840,)	$299,057,534 31
Number of Public Schools,	3,103
Number of scholars of all ages in all the schools, in Summer,	131,761
Number of scholars of all ages in all the schools, in Winter,	155,041
Average attendance in the schools, in Summer,	96,892
Average attendance in the schools, in Winter,	116,308
Number of persons between 4 and 16 years of age,	184,392
Number of persons under 4 years of age, who attend school,	7,823
Number over 16 years of age who attend school,	9,032
Average length of the schools in months and days,	7,16
Number of Teachers, (including summer and winter terms,) Males,	2,491
Number of Teachers, (including summer and winter terms,) Females,	4,112
Average wages paid per month, including board, to Males,	$33 80
Average wages paid per month, including board, to Females,	$12 81
Average value of board per month, of Males,	$8 62
Average value of board per month, of Females,	$5 85
Average wages per month, exclusive of board, of Males,	$25 18
Average wages per month, exclusive of board, of Females,	$6 96
Amount of money raised by taxes for the support of schools, including only the wages of teachers, board, and fuel,	$491,015 23
Amount of board and fuel contributed for Public Schools,	$37,743 34
Number of incorporated academies,	80
Aggregate of months kept,	775¼
Average number of scholars,	3825
Aggregate paid for tuition,	$56,538 89
Number of unincorporated academies, private schools, and schools kept to prolong Common Schools,	1,388
Aggregate of months kept,	8,540¼
Average number of scholars,	31,794
Aggregate paid for tuition,	$259,123 87
Amount of local funds,	$325,852 02
Income from same,	$15,306 20
Income of Surplus Revenue appropriated to schools,	$9,529 48

A GRADUATED TABLE, SHOWING THE COMPARATIVE AMOUNT OF MONEY APPROPRIATED BY THE DIFFERENT COUNTIES IN THE STATE, FOR THE EDUCATION OF EACH CHILD BETWEEN THE AGES OF 4 AND 16 YEARS, IN EACH COUNTY.

COUNTIES.	Sum appropriated for each Child between 4 and 16 Years of Age.	Amount raised by Taxes for the Support of Schools.	Income of the Surplus Revenue appropriated to Schools.	TOTAL.	No. of Children between 4 and 16 Years of Age.	Amount contributed for Board and Fuel.
1 Suffolk,	$5 39	$100,563 01	$00 00	$00 00	18,655	$90 00
2 Nantucket,	3 88	7,500 00	.	.	1,931	.
3 Middlesex,	3 23	81,390 60	1,692 66	83,083 26	25,667	371 58
4 Norfolk,	2 90	37,125 00	488 19	37,613 19	12,963	100 00
5 Plymouth,	2 66	31,800 05	1,842 16	33,642 21	12,616	2,364 75
6 Bristol,	2 37	36,060 53	171 00	36,231 53	15,260	5,141 75
7 Essex,	2 29	56,948 60	978 59	57,927 19	25,232	140 00
8 Worcester,	2 26	55,231 38	702 36	55,933 74	24,723	1,645 71
9 Hampshire,	2 19	18,140 00	436 09	18,576 09	8,455	5,095 75
10 Hampden,	2 16	18,526 87	1,528 96	20,055 83	9,267	5,989 89
11 Duke's,	1 91	1,800 00	143 47	1,943 47	1,015	2 00
12 Franklin,	1 77	14,687 69	323 90	15,011 59	8,460	6,172 66
13 Barnstable,	1 66	15,196 44	700 00	15,896 44	9,557	1,171 00
14 Berkshire,	1 56	16,045 06	522 10	16,567 16	10,591	9,458 25
AGGREGATE FOR THE STATE.						
14 Counties,	2 71	491,015 23	9,529 48	500,544 71	184,392	37,743 34

School Master Abroad.—The following is a literal copy of a notice stuck up in a small steamboat in Yankee waters: "*No smoking* aloud *abaft the engine.*"

"One of the most agreeable consequences of knowledge is the respect and importance which it communicates to old age. Men rise in character, often, as they increase in years;—they are venerable from what they have acquired, and pleasing from what they can impart. If they outlive their faculties, the mere frame itself is respected for what it once contained; but women, (such is their unfortunate style of education,) hazard every thing upon one cast of the die;—when youth is gone, all is gone. No human creature gives his admiration for nothing; either the eye must be charmed, or the understanding gratified. A woman must talk wisely, or look well. Every human being must put up with the coldest civility, who has neither the charms of youth nor the wisdom of age. Neither is there the slightest commiseration for decayed accomplishments;—no man mourns over the fragments of a dancer, or drops a tear on the relics of musical skill. They are flowers destined to perish; but the decay of great talents is always the object of solemn pity; and even when their last memorial is over, their ruins and vestiges are regarded with pious affection."

SOUND OF THE LETTER *R*.

To the Editor of the Common School Journal.

DEAR SIR: As I do not know who the person is that uses the initials N. S. L., as a correspondent in your No. for August 2d, and as I think that writers on topics connected with education should avoid personalities in their remarks, I will only ask of you the favor to spare me as much space as a few brief statements of fact may require.

1st. I do not practise, nor inculcate, nor approve, the manner of sounding initial *r*, which your correspondent stigmatizes. On the contrary, it is my habitual practice to guard my pupils against it as an error; and in my Lessons in Enunciation I have pointed it out expressly. Why your correspondent should wish to charge it on me I do not know.

At the same time, I adhere to Walker's just distinction in regard to the different sounds of *r*, according to its position in words and syllables; and Walker's authority on any subject connected with pronunciation is higher than that of Dr. Johnson, or the others whom your correspondent mentions.

2d. The word *trill* I used to designate the initial or hard *r*,—not because it was the best designation of the sound in question, but merely from want of better. I could not have thought it possible that any person would imagine that I meant a *musical* trill. The action of the tongue required in executing the hard *r*, renders it impossible that a musical trill can be formed on it.

3d. The hard *r*, being formed by an *instantaneous* effort of the organs, *does not require half the time* in the articulation of it that is required by the soft or final *r*, which is comparatively liquid, and is naturally and properly prolonged. The initial or hard *r* is one of the shortest of elementary sounds. Hence Dr. Barber's anxiety to designate it as "a single slap of the tongue." I have always guarded my pupils against rolling, or prolonging, or aspirating that sound. When your correspondent maintains that I am "as long in sounding an initial *r* as in sounding three or four common letters," I must suppose that there is either a want of discriminating ear, or a reliance on incorrect information chargeable against him in this particular.

4th. "A prolonged, quavering, or sonorous roll," in articulating initial *r*, would be no beauty, but a gross defect, in my estimation.

5th. One word in regard to the enunciation of the eminent public speakers whom your correspondent names. I have heard them all, often, and can only repeat that they are all three—but especially the last of the three whom he mentions—characterized, as I think, by perfect precision and propriety in the formation of that distinctive sound. The error of substituting *soft* for *hard r*, is not so prevalent among public speakers as among other classes of readers. The comparative force demanded in the pronunciation of a public address, has a tendency to prevent, in this instance, the slackness and obscurity of articulation which are so characteristic a fault of young readers, and persons who are limited to private practice.

6th. Your correspondent seems offended because I have charged him with want of discrimination and want of information on the subject under discussion. I meant no personality and no offence. Your cor-

respondent is probably a very competent teacher of music, and might find *me* at fault in his department; and should he have occasion to do so, I ought to thank him for the correction. I should be leaving my own line of teaching, however, were I to pronounce on his accuracy as a teacher in his department; and *I think he would have just reason to complain of me, if I represented him as exemplifying or inculcating a style of execution which he did not practise, and which he decidedly censured.*

In conclusion, I would repeat that the distinction in the sounds of *r* is Walker's—not mine, any further than in following Walker;—that I expressly object, both in my book and my teaching, to "rolling," or "duplicating," or in any other way *prolonging* initial *r*;—that by a "trill" I mean nothing else than the result of an energetic vibration of the *tip* of the tongue, producing a comparatively *forcible* sound, as contrasted with a gentle vibration of *the whole fore part* of the tongue, which necessarily produces a *softer* sound.

I feel reluctant to encroach further on your indulgence; and as I do not know where I could see your correspondent, I would ask of him, in the spirit of respect and kindness, the favor of a personal interview, that he may have adequate opportunity of correcting or verifying his statements in regard to some of the points under discussion between us.

Yours, with much respect,

WILLIAM RUSSELL.

The following, if read with the proper pauses, makes good sense:—

I saw a peacock with a fiery tail;
I saw a blazing star that dropped down hail;
I saw a cloud begirt with ivy round;
I saw a sturdy oak creep on the ground;
I saw a pismire swallow up a whale;
I saw the brackish sea brim full of ale;
I saw a phial glass sixteen yards deep;
I saw a well full of men's tears to weep;
I saw men's eyes all on a flame of fire;
I saw a house high as the moon or higher;
I saw the radiant sun at midnight;
I saw the man who saw this dreadful sight.

We are pleased with the possession and exercise of great *physical* power. If our feelings were right, the possession and exercise of great *moral* power would confer a thousand-fold more happiness.

How often do we meet persons whose love of their own opinion is greater than their love of truth! One Martin Horky, a German, contemporary with Galileo, and one who contested Galileo's theory of the motion of the earth, and also denied,—what was plain to be seen through a telescope,—that Jupiter had four moons, (which Galileo had discovered,) said, "I will never concede his four new planets to that Italian, though I die for it."

FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

(Continued from page 272.)

INEFFICIENCY AND UNPRODUCTIVENESS OF EXPENDITURE, FOR PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

The theory of Public Instruction, in this Commonwealth, as deduced from the statute-book, and as it generally exists in the minds of the people, assorts or distributes that instruction, under two heads;—first, that of the Incorporated Academy, and second, that of the Common School. The general sphere or office of the incorporated academy is, to prepare students for college, or to give to them such specific instruction in advanced studies, as qualifies for some department of educated labor. But the institutions for common education have a wider,—a universal, sphere of action. They are designed, like the common blessings of Heaven, to encompass all; so that every child that is born amongst us, shall as truly be said to be born into a world of intellectual and moral, as into a world of natural light;—not a world where a few splendid beams fall upon a few favored eyes, while others are involved in darkness, but where a broad expanse of light spreads over and glows around all. Our theory of education proceeds upon the supposition, that every child will have too many duties to perform in after-life, not to begin to prepare for them, even before he has any conception what they are to be; and that he will have too many dangers and temptations to encounter and to repel, not to begin to provide against them, even before he is apprized that they lie in ambush about his path. For these grand purposes the Common School was established, whose very name proclaims its eulogy.

The average number of students in the incorporated academies, in the school year 1838–9, was 3599;—in the year 1839–40, it was 3701. It is gratifying to witness this increase. It shows,—what indeed could not have been doubted beforehand,—that whatever advances the prosperity of the Common Schools, will advance that of all the higher institutions of learning. The sum paid for tuition, last year, in the incorporated academies, was $57,458 59, or between fifteen and sixteen dollars apiece for the students.

During the same year, the number of children in the State, between the ages of four and sixteen years, was 179,268, or, in round numbers, one hundred and eighty thousand, and the expense for education in Common School studies was $718,335 44. I propose, hereafter, to show what proportion of this sum of money was lost by the permanent absences of the children from the schools, or their irregular attendance upon them. My present purpose is to demonstrate the prodigious loss, which all portions of the community have suffered from the inefficient and unproductive manner in which this ample sum has been expended.

Of this $718,335 44, expended for instruction in Common School studies, the sum of $477,221 24 was expended in the public schools, and the balance, viz., $241,114 20, in private schools, select schools, high schools, unincorporated academies, schools kept to prolong Common Schools, &c., all of which may be classed under the general head of private schools. The average length of the public schools was seven months and ten days, and of the private schools, six months and ten days. The average wages of male teachers, in all the public schools in the State, was

$33 08, and of the female teachers, for the same schools, $12 75, per month. Now, had the above-stated amount of money, ($718,335 44,) which was expended for instruction in Common School studies, but which, being divided into two funds, was sufficient to keep the public schools only seven months and ten days, on an average, and the private schools, only six months and ten days, on an average,—had this sum been united in one fund, and appropriated for the support of the public schools, it would have sustained them more than eleven months each; —that is, for a longer portion of the year than it would generally be thought desirable to have our schools kept. This presents the astounding fact of a direct loss of nearly four months' schooling, to all the children in the State, in consequence of a division of the fund, to support two classes of schools, the public and the private, instead of concentrating its energies upon one. Even if the aggregate of eight thousand three hundred and twenty-four months,—which is the amount of time, during which all the private schools, select schools, &c., were kept,—were averaged upon the public schools, and added to the length of their term, it would lengthen them only to ten months, instead of eleven; and hence, even in that case, a month would be lost for each of the three thousand and seventy-two schools in the State.

Again; without this division of the fund, expended for instruction in Common School studies, the public schools might all have been continued for ten months of the year, and the wages of all the teachers in them advanced more than ten per cent., without appropriating an additional dollar of money for the purpose. What a vast gain would accrue from such an enlightened change in our policy;—schools prolonged nearly three months in the year, such liberal compensation given that all teachers could afford to prepare themselves better for their arduous and responsible duties, more talented persons engaging in the service, and an inducement held out to all to continue in the employment for a longer term.

In this computation it is only assumed, that, if the whole fund were expended for public schools, the amount contributed for board and fuel would be in the same ratio to the whole sum that it now is. It undoubtedly would be greater.

Of this whole class of schools, which I have included in the generic term, private schools, it is difficult to speak in a manner not liable to misconstruction. But, entertaining no unfriendly feelings towards any class of persons connected with them, whether as teachers or patrons; never having cast, and intending never to cast any imputations upon their motives; and feeling moreover, that it is impossible fairly to discuss the great interests of Public Education, and leave this important branch of it unnoticed, I shall throw myself upon their candor, while I endeavor to show, that a dedication of all our means to one object, and a united and fraternal coöperation in promoting it, would confer a vastly greater amount of good upon each one of the whole, than any of them now enjoys; and that an end so desirable can be accomplished at a diminished expense.

In the first place, however, I would remark, that it is due to many of those who sustain the system of private schools, to say, that they have been driven into its adoption, by the imperfect character of the public schools. If a parent, who feels,—as every one worthy to be a parent does feel,—an obligation upon himself, authoritative as a command

from Heaven, to give to his children a good education, and who, therefore, is resolved, in the last resort, to make any sacrifice for the object; if he cannot command that education in the district where he belongs; if the school term is short; if, from the low rate of compensation given, a perpetual succession of young and inexperienced teachers are employed; if the schoolhouse is in such a condition as to put the health of his children in daily jeopardy;—then, after he has made earnest and persevering efforts to obtain, at least, a safe schoolhouse, a suitable length of term, and a competent instructer, and such efforts have proved unavailing; so far is that parent from being blameworthy for securing a safer house, a longer term, and a better teacher, that, if he did not do it, the voice of the community would unite with that of his own conscience in condemning his neglect. The necessity, however, of providing a private school for his children, in no case supersedes the obligation of laboring to elevate the public school, until the private one shall be no longer needful. And so of those who wish to dedicate their talents to the honorable profession of teaching. If they can command only short terms and scanty wages in the public service, they are free to seek employment elsewhere; for on no principle of justice can the public demand from them gratuitous labor. These concessions being made, may not a candid and impartial attention to the relation in which these schools stand to the great cause of free, public, Common School instruction, be now expected?

All private schools are naturally divided into two classes, the first of which consists of

SCHOOLS KEPT TO PROLONG COMMON SCHOOLS.

There is a custom in many districts, after the money appropriated to the support of the public schools is expended, for a few of the inhabitants most interested in education, to propose a few weeks' continuance of the school, at private expense. A subscription paper is circulated through the district, parents set down the number of children they will send, and, at the close of the school, the expense of sustaining it, (with the exception of the schoolhouse, which is occupied rent-free,) is assessed upon them, according to the number of the children sent. Such schools are universally known in Massachusetts by the name of "Schools kept to prolong Common Schools." The same person who taught the public school is employed; the course of studies is the same, and the compensation of the teacher is generally the same. The difference is, that the expense is borne by persons of competent property who have children, while the wealthy who have no children pay nothing, and the children of the poor, who most need the benefits of the school, are kept at home, because of their parents' poverty. Here the question naturally arises, What is gained by such a course? Every one must see the loss, in the deprivation of a part of the children of the greatest of all benefits; but where is the compensatory gain? Suppose a town raises the sum of $1200 for its public schools;—suppose this sum sufficient to keep a school in each of its districts six months, including both summer and winter terms; and further, that the districts respectively, not satisfied with so short a school, desire to prolong it to seven months and a half. I take this term of time, because it is very near the average length of the schools, last year. This would be an addition of six weeks to the length of the public schools; and this ad-

dition, being equal to one quarter of six months, will, of course, cost one quarter of $1200, i. e., $300, so that the aggregate paid in the town, both for the public schools and the schools kept to prolong them, would be $1500. Now, wherein is any thing gained, by obtaining schools, for seven months and a half, in this way, over what would be realized, should the town grant the $1500, in the first instance? This only is gained;—suppose there are eight districts in the town; then there are eight subscriptions to be filled up, by a canvass of the eight districts, and eight assessments are to be made and collected. There is no prudential committee man to look after the condition of the schoolhouse; and difficulties not unfrequently arise in relation to injuries done to it, while the private school is keeping. The school has no title to be visited, and is not visited, by the town committee. The expense being paid by those who send, it is a departure from the great principle that the property of the State is bound to provide a good Common School education for every child in the State. But the paramount vice of the measure,—that which renders all others insignificant in the comparison,—is, that the children of the poor do not attend the school. Those who have little property get little education; for when the advantages of a private school are offered to a poor man, the question whether he shall send his children to it, is a question to be settled by reference to his property; but when the advantages of a public school are offered to the same man, the question whether he shall send to it, is settled by the value he attaches to their education; and the probabilities are, that these questions will, almost invariably, receive opposite answers. The evil re-acts, also, upon those who seemed to be exempted from it. At the opening of the next school term, the children of the poor are turned in upon the school; and, by their relative backwardness, they hang as a clog upon the feet of the advanced scholars.

There is one advantage, however, belonging to this course of proceeding, which, in an impartial comparison of merits and defects, ought not to be overlooked. It affords to the district an opportunity to prolong the school, when the teacher happens to give good satisfaction; or to close it, with the expenditure of the public money, when he does not. But this is very far from being a compensation for the evils referred to, to say nothing of the temptation which it sets before the teacher, to cultivate, by an unequal attention to their children, the good-will of a few families, whose favor may be most likely to insure a continuance of the school.

As to that large class of towns, then, which are in the habit of supplying the deficiency in the length of the public schools, by a contribution for this kind of private ones, it is respectfully suggested whether a true economy of time, trouble, and expense, the advantages of a better supervision of the schools, and the more equal and diffusive benefits of education, do not alike counsel them to add to the customary amount of the town's appropriation, a sum equal to what is now expended for prolonging the Common Schools. When the town will not increase its appropriation to this amount, then to prolong the Common Schools is, on the whole, undoubtedly better, than to suffer under the stinted term, which the public money will sustain;—especially is this so, if the praiseworthy and benevolent course, adopted by some districts, is followed, viz., that of opening the school to all the children in the district, whether their parents contribute to its support or not.

SELECT SCHOOLS, PRIVATE SCHOOLS, HIGH SCHOOLS, &c.

Under this head are included all the kinds of schools, which fall below the grade of those incorporated academies, whose design it is to prepare pupils for the college, or for some of the departments of educated labor. This class of schools teach the same branches which are taught, or should be taught, in the Common School; and, on the part of those who sustain them, they are, to a very great extent, truly and professedly substitutes for what the Common School ought to be. Their ordinary expense is six or eight times as great as that of an equally good Common School would be, if the two funds were united. But having, in my First Annual Report, explained, in some detail, the unfavorable influence, which this class of schools exerts upon the free ones, I will not go over that ground again, except in a very summary manner. It was there shown that the natural effect of this class of schools was to enhance the cost of education, without improving its quality; to give the teachers a higher tuition fee, for each scholar, but to add nothing to the amount which, under a better system, they would obtain from the public; to withdraw, from the public schools, some of the best scholars, and therefore to leave the rest without the benefit of their example, and with the children, to withdraw, also, the guardian care and watchfulness of some of the most intelligent men in the district. It was further shown that these schools, having supplied their patrons with means for educating their own children, adequate to their wants, they took away all motive to increase the town's appropriation, if they did not cause a positive reduction of it; and that, as in most country districts, there were no surplus intelligence and public spirit that could be spared from the cause of public education, the transfer of the sympathies and interest of a considerable number of the most intelligent citizens left the Common School to languish, or, what is infinitely worse, to acquire, through neglect, a pernicious efficiency in the formation of bad habits and character.

It is now three years since these views were expressed; and after the most attentive observation and reflection during the intervening time, the only modification of them I would make, would be to set forth, in a more earnest and impressive manner, the disastrous effects of this division of the fund, and this sundering of the unity of interests, which should be kept forever one and indissoluble, and consecrated to the promotion of a common cause. As before stated, could these two funds be united, our school terms might be prolonged to the period of ten months in a year, and all the teachers receive an addition of more than ten per cent. to their wages, without the appropriation of an additional dollar. Other consequences, which would necessarily flow from such a union of resources and concert of action, would be, that the best of the private school teachers would be transferred to the public schools; in many cases, the convenient and even elegant houses, which have been prepared for the private schools would be purchased by the districts, and thus the stigma of their own forlorn and wretched buildings be taken away;—for it is as certain, as that the shadow attends the substance, that on entering a handsome village in almost any part of the State, and seeing a small, low-roofed, dilapidated, weather-beaten schoolhouse, obtruding itself from the corner of some street, or surrounded by noisy workshops, there will be found in that village one or more flourishing private schools, kept in commodious and elegant houses.

Taking the whole number in the State, of the class of schools generally called private, they average less than twenty-two scholars apiece. This number is obviously too small for economy, or for realizing the full benefits which the social feelings of fellow-pupils may exert upon them. When the teacher depends upon the school for his support, and the school is so small, he must be a highly-conscientious man, to incur the risk of losing any portion of his pupils by thwarting their wishes in regard to the course of study, by enforcing thoroughness in the less attractive branches, or by such checks as are often necessary for the restraint of youthful impulses.

It is a matter of great curiosity to observe the workings of conflicting motives, in the same town, on the subject of its expenditures for the schools;—the motive of economy, limiting the amount of the town grants, and the motive of liberality for extending the schools. The latter strives to palliate the consequences of the former. And it will often be found that a majority of the inhabitants of a town will vote against a proposed increase of its appropriations, and then, the same year, a large majority in the same town will give, by private contribution, three or four times the amount of the proposed increase in order to make up the deficiency in the town's grant. In the county of Barnstable, for instance, the practice extensively prevails, after the town has made its annual appropriations, for the districts to call meetings and to decide by a major vote, that the school shall be kept a given number of months, irrespective of the distributive share they are to receive from the town. When the school commences, the teacher is directed to keep an exact account of the attendance of each scholar during the term. At the close of the school, the expense of it is ascertained; the district's share of the town money is first applied to defray that expense, and the residue is assessed upon the parents and guardians of the scholars, according to the amount of their attendance. This proceeding is known by the name of "*mixing the money.*" Although this is done by the district, without any shadow of legal authority, yet it has been generally acquiesced in;—the desire of a longer school prevailing over the question of strict, legal right. In some few instances, individuals have declined to contribute for prolonging the school,—proposing to take their children from it, after the town's money should be expended. But to defeat this purpose, the district, in some cases, has voted that the school be kept from public and from private money, in alternate weeks or fortnights; that is, the first week or fortnight from the public money, the second from the private, the third from the public again, and so on. This would virtually compel all to come into the plan of ratable contribution, because such an intermitting attendance,—one week in and the next week out,—would be nearly valueless. In some cases, all the children have been allowed to attend the school, and the tax has been remitted in regard to the poor; and thus a spirit of generosity has done much to remedy the inherent defects of the system; and the principle, that the property shall support the school, has been reverted to, in substance, after all the trouble of departing from it, in form, has been incurred. In point of policy, the mode of *mixing the money* seems even less exceptionable, than the one which is more generally adopted, in other parts of the State; viz., that of the town's voting an inadequate sum, and then for a few persons to take their children from the public schools, and establish a private one for their sole bene-

fit; or for the leading inhabitants of the districts to prolong the Common School, at their individual expense. It is gratifying to find, that, notwithstanding the great amount of money expended, last year, in the county of Barnstable, for private schools, compared with the sum raised for the public ones, yet that a majority of all the towns in that county, materially increased their appropriations over those of the preceding year; and thus, that they are adopting the most effectual of all methods for an ultimate remedy. And, however paradoxical it may seem, it is still true, that a gradual enlargement of the town appropriations, from year to year, is the only way to diminish the aggregate of expenses for education in Common School studies; and the more rapidly the increase is made, the greater will be the saving in the whole expense. Each additional hundred dollars, raised by the town for public schools, will save two or three hundred in the expense for private ones, besides drawing after it the consequences of higher compensation for teachers, longer school terms, greater intelligence in the general administration of the system, and more zeal for the advancement of the scholars. An enlargement of the town appropriations, therefore, is alike dictated by policy and economy.

The prostration of the energies of our school system, by this division of the funds expended to sustain it, is not the only evil which that division causes. It tends strongly to a perversion of the social feelings of the children,—to envy on the one side, and to an assumption of superiority on the other. We may moralize to children, forever, upon the duty of *doing* to others as they would be done by; and also, (which is within the equitable interpretation of the same divine law,) upon the duty of *feeling* towards others as they would have others feel towards them; or upon the duty of each one's esteeming others better than himself; but if they are sent forth at the same hour, and pass along the same streets, to enter houses of instruction almost as different from each other as the squalid wigwam of the savage from the elegant mansions of the civilized, it is impossible, while human nature remains as it is, that feelings of alienation, of distance and discord, should not spring up and choke out their social affections. An enemy is among them sowing tares;—not in the night, but in the open day; not while the parents are asleep, for it is the parents themselves who scatter the seed. The social and dissocial feelings of children are, to a very great extent, the natural growth of the circumstances in which they are placed; and therefore it is, that the circumstances, as far as possible, must be sought or avoided, out of which proper or improper feelings naturally emanate; —and they are responsible for the result, who determine the circumstances.

The whole number of scholars attending the private schools of all kinds, last year, was less than thirty thousand; that is, less than one sixth part of the whole number of children in the State, between the ages of four and sixteen years. Amongst whom are these thirty thousand children destined to live, when they pass from minority to manhood? Is not this one-sixth to receive good or suffer evil from social institutions, which the other five-sixths will mould according to their own will? Are they not to depend, not only for social consideration and public favor, but also, to a great extent, for the security of person, and property, and reputation, on the feelings of the community towards

them? And is it not, therefore, the clearest policy, as well as the highest duty, to establish such relations among all the children, as will prepare them for their common destiny when men? Besides, it is impossible to inflict any other so great an intellectual injury upon a child, as to inspire him with the pride of a superiority which is merely accidental;—and the result is the same, whether that pride be inspired by direct inculcation, or by surrounding him with circumstances which naturally excite it. Personal exertion is the only unfailing resource, upon which he can draw. Take away every thing else, but leave the spirit that prompts to exertion, and you leave the means of the highest worldly prosperity and honors. Take this spirit away, and he is impoverished, though left in possession of every adventitious good. The idea of superiority, derived from the casual and accidental distinctions of wealth, or parentage, or rank, seems to take away the necessity of personal exertion, and thus it destroys the sources of greatness; and men of wealth, of rank, and of conspicuous standing in society, from whatsoever cause, must reconcile themselves to see their children become inferior men, and fall into inferior positions in society, notwithstanding all the labor and cost bestowed upon them, until they will provide for those children some antidote against thinking themselves superior to their fellows, on any grounds but those of the power and the will to do good. All children, born to what is commonly called a better fortune, so far from having their attention turned to that fact, need the strongest motives to counteract its influence.

These views bear directly upon the subject of private schools, especially in our country towns and villages; and that they are beginning to be adopted, and, to some extent, acted upon, the statistics of the last Abstract give gratifying evidence. In the school year 1838–9, the expense of tuition in this class of schools amounted to $270,462 80; in the year 1839–40, it fell to $241,114 20. A falling off of $30,000 in this item, in a single year, while the amount of appropriations by the towns was simultaneously increased, an equal sum, is a fact for which I can assign no cause but the prevalence of a sounder public opinion on the expediency of bringing all the children, for their own sakes, to the same starting-post, to commence together the journey of life.

At the same time, not only the number of students, as before stated, but the amount paid for tuition, in the incorporated academies, has substantially increased. No person, having any knowledge of the relation of cause and effect, as applicable to this subject, has ever doubted, that an improvement in the condition of the Common Schools, while it would concentrate the intelligence of the community upon them, and draw over, by the offer of higher compensation, the best professional, private teachers, to the public service, would also, as a natural consequence, promote the prosperity of those institutions, which really occupy the place, and give the instruction appropriate to academies, and are not mere district schools, under a corporate name, and governed by boards of trustees, instead of a prudential committee.

(To be continued.)

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